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ARMENIAN AND ARABIC

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THE WORDS FOR 'BEET' IN THREE INTERRELATED SYSTEMS: GRECO-ROMAN, ARMENIAN AND ARABIC

In earlier times, the beet was not culinarily esteemed, nor was this vegetable particularly valuable as a component in pharmaceuticals, the other important use to which plants were put. This was true not only for the Greeks and the Romans, but it was also the thinking of other contiguous cultures. The Arabs and the Armenians to a great extent found the beet only somewhat appealing. In those times it was primarily the greens of the beet that were eaten. When the root itself was the object of one's appetite, it was usually specially stated. Principally the ancients considered the white beet just barely palatable, the black beet, causing indigestion, was for the most part uneaten. It seems plausible that what was referred to as the 'white beet' is what we now call 'swiss chard (Beta vulgaris L.)' a plant eaten solely for its greens; the 'black beet' (Beta vulgaris L. var. rapa Asch.), as it was then called, is the variety whose root we now use, and which is deep red in color. The Armenian and Arab use of the beet in the preparation of pharmaceutical concoctions is similar to the Greco-Roman use, but this is largely because they derived much of their medical thinking from the ideas of Galen, Dioscorides, Paul of Aegina and Oribasius. If we were to find out about the use of the beet in Greek and Roman literature, we would first go to the natural historians, such as Theophrastus and Pliny the Elder; to the physicians, such as Galen, Dioscorides, Paul of Aegina and Oribasius, and to the sole surviving cookbook of Roman times, the De re coquinaria of Caelius Apicius. Also of interest would be the works of Cato on agriculture, and the Cena Trimalchionis of Petronius, for an abundance of foods was noted by that writer who parodied Greek romances. There would be other sources, particularly among writers of comedies.

Theophrastus mentions the beet along with other root crops, and he describes them as fleshy plants that respond well to

cultivation (δμοίως δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ τῶν τεύτλων καὶ γὰρ ταῦτα λαμβάνει μένεθος [Historia plantarum 1.3.2, and see also 1.6.7, 7.2.8.]): and he notes that their seeds keep well, though not saying how the seeds were used. He also observes (7.4.5) that there are two kinds of beets, the white (τὸ λευκόν) and the black (τὸ μέλαν). the former having a better flavor. Pliny the Elder (23/24-79 AD) repeats, almost verbatim (eius quoque a colore duo genera Graeci faciunt, nigrum et candidius [Naturalis historia 19.132]). the comments in Theophrastus 7.4.5, though he notes an array of healing properties: the juice of the dark beet helps snake bites, dandruff, dysentery, chilblains, toothaches, headaches and dizziness (sucus eius capitis dolores et vertigines [tollunt, etc.] [20.69]). It is also helpful against the tape worm. The white beet heals burns, rids one of pimples while its juice, mixed with honey, is a useful irrigant for compacted mucus in the nose (sucus eius cum melle naribus inlitus caput purgat [20.71]). As an item for the gourmand, the beet found only occasional favor. It is noted in six sections in De re coquinaria, the Roman cookbook of Caelius Apicius, who tells us tiny beets should be cooked in fish water with peppers, fresh leeks and cumin (Betas minutas et porros requietos elixabis, in patina compones, teres piper, cuminum, suffundes liquamen [3.2.1-3]). And in Petronius there is a brief mention, placing the beet (which arrives in a bundle [fascemque betae {56.9}]) next to viandic exotica: mice, frogs, odd fishes, etc. (1). Catullus portrays the beet obscenely when noting the sexual inadequacy of a certain husband, whose member hangs more soft than a boiled beet (Languidior tenera cui pendens sicula beta [67.21]). But saintly old Cato (De agri cultura) finds value in the beet complete with root, as a purgative, when, along with ham hocks and cabbage leaves, some exotic ferns and other plants, they are added to boiling water (betae

⁽¹⁾ Actually, part of the humor of this description of Trimalchio's feast is the very conventionality of Trimalchio's menu. And to have a dish included at Trimalchio's table is, upon examination, not a mark of splendor, but rather suggestive of the narrow vision of a man, who though now rich, is still shackled to the mores of the middle class. For some precise comments on Trimalchio's menu, see Schmeling 1970 (and I should here thank Gareth Schmeling for his numerous helpful comments on Roman food; and thanks as well for the helpful criticism of John Scarborough and Emilie Savage-Smith).

coliculos duos cum radice sua [158.1]). But Cicero, in his Epistulae ad familiares, replies quite to the contrary, noting that he once used beets and mallow to stop diarrhea, the result of eating too many fancy dishes at a banquet (tanta me διάρροια arripuit, ... a beta et a malva deceptus sum [Fam. 7.26.2]). In Greek literature the term $\tau \varepsilon \tilde{\nu} \tau \lambda o \nu$ (or $\sigma \varepsilon \tilde{\nu} \tau \lambda o \nu$) is rather obscure outside of medical literature. Odd uses occur, though, and $\tau a \tilde{v} \tau \lambda o v$ appears three times in the fragments of the Attic comedians. Eubulus is recorded by Athenaeus Epigrammaticus in the Anthologia Graeca. Athenaeus himself notes that an eel, wrapped in beet (greens), is good to eat (ὅτι δ'ἤσθιον τὰς ἐγγέλεις καὶ μετὰ τεύτλων ἐντυλίζαντες [35]), and quotes Eubulus saying that, at a banquet, fair-skinned, unmarried girls brought forth an eel, the body covered around with beet (greens) (νύμφα ἀπειρόγαμος τεύτλωι περί σῶμα καλυπτὰ / λευκόγχρως παρέσται / ἔγκελυς [37]). Elsewhere, in the comic fragments, we read again how well the eel goes with beet greens (καὶ μὴν παρῆν τεμάχη μὲν ἐζωπτημένα / καταγυσματίοισι παντοδαποῖσιν εὐτρεπῆ / τεύτλοισί τ' ἐγκέλεια συγκεκαλυμμένα [Pherecrates 108.10-11]). Antiphanes, though, does not speak of eels, but prefers the tuna fish; and it is wrapped not in beet greens, but served with slices of what must be the beet root (τῆς τε βελτίστης μεσαῖον θυννάδος Βυζαντίας / τέμαζος έν τεύτλου λακιστοῖς κρύπτεται στεγάσμασιν [181]). From these few passages we can see that the beet was of little actual importance to the Greeks; it was even a slightly comic plant. The Romans, though, could take it a bit more seriously, even if it became fodder for the jokes of Petronius and Catullus.

More specific attention is afforded by the ancient physicians, Galen and Dioscorides. These two authors are particularly of interest because it was their ideas that were later transmitted to the Armenians and Arabs. Dioscorides (1st century AD) devotes a full entry to the beet (he uses the Hellenistic form $\sigma \epsilon \tilde{v} \tau \lambda o v$), also noting (II, 123) that there are two types, the black and the white ($\mu \epsilon \lambda a v \kappa a \lambda \epsilon v \kappa o v$), and also implying that the leaves were more commonly eaten than the roots. The black beet tends to be more binding ($\sigma \tau a \lambda \tau \iota \kappa \omega \tau \epsilon \rho o v \kappa o \iota \lambda i a \varsigma$ [II.123.8-9]), he said, but the white is good for the belly. The beet juice is noted as being bad since it contains an abundance of niter. By this the ancients probably meant various alkalis, principally soda, an observation

made some time ago by Francis Adams (1844,III,371). However, this juice, mixed with honey, purges one's head of phlegm (ô χυλὸς αὐτῶν καθαίρει κεφαλὴν ρινὶ έγκεόμενος μετὰ μέλιτος καὶ ώταλγίας ώφελεῖ [II.123.11-12]), and reduces ear-aches, as Pliny also said. Galen (129-210 AD) deals, in his Simples, with the beet more briefly than Dioscorides, noting also that it contains niter, that this is valuable for reducing mucus, and promotes perspiration (γίγνεται δ' ἀφλεγμάντου δυνάμεως καὶ ἀτρέμα διαφορηατικής [Kühn XII.138]), ideas that are found partly in Pliny and Dioscorides; the white beet is stronger for these purposes than the black, which is astringent, though these properties are more common in the root than in other parts. Galen also notes, in his De alimentorum facultatibus, that the root has more value for nourishment than the leaves (εἰ δὲ καὶ τεύτλου ... ἐθέλοις παραβάλλειν την ρίζαν τοῖς φύλλοις, ἰσωχυροτέραν εύρησεις την δύναμιν [Kühn VI.646]). And, as noted also in his Simples, he states in Hippocrats De humoribus, that the beet is helpful for loosening phlegm (καὶ ἀποφλεγματισμὸς δὲ χρήσιμός ἐστι μετὰ τὴν τοῦ ὅλου σώματος κάθαρσιν, οὕτω καὶ τὰ ἔρρινα [Kühn XVI.148]). He also says (De compositione medicamentorum) that the beet, like certain other foods, is easy on the stomach $(\tau \rho o \phi a \dot{\alpha} \zeta)$ άρμοδίους τοῖς στομαγικοῖς τὰσδε δοτέον τεῦτλον ... κτλ. [Kühn XIII.1731).

A later use by the Byzantine physician Oribasius (320-400 AD) mentions the affects of the beet for scalp problems: cooked or raw, the beet (juice), applied to a shaved head, rids the sufferer of dandruff scurf, shingles and herpes (Καὶ ἑφθὸν καὶ τοῦν τεῦτλον ἀχῶρσί τε καὶ ἕρπησι καὶ λειχῆσι καὶ πιτύροις, ἤν προαποξυρῆς τὴν κεφαλήν, ἐπιπλαττόμενον ἀρμόζει πάνυ [Raeder IX.53].

From these unenthusiastic discriptions of the use of the beet, its root and its leaves, it seems clear that this vegetable held little charm to the Greeks and Romans, neither for its use as food, nor for its use as a medicament. If it soothed any illness, there was another plant that did it better (2).

⁽²⁾ Galen wrote a lengthy essay on substitutes (*De succedaneis*), plants or minerals that could be used when the particular item wanted was unavailable. Significantly, neither the beet root nor the leaves are used as substitutes though

Armenian mention of the beet is more complex because there are a plurality of terms for the beet. One word, apparently early, is čakndeł, and it is used strictly for beet only; a second word, bazuk is also consistently used for the root of the beet, and there are two other words, banjar and silx, the semantic range of which is often more varied. But *čakndel* is surely a beet in its earliest usages. Derived by loan from Persian chugundar, it remodeled its final syllable to an Armenian shape (del 'plant'). It appears in the Bible (Is. 51.20), where the Armenian and Septuagint versions share a rather bizarre use. The Armenian states: "Your sons have fainted, and it is they who lie at the juncture of every highway like half-cooked beets" (ibrew zčakndeł kisep'eay). This corresponds to the Greek, from which the Armenian was derived (3), where we read an absolutely similar ώς σευτλίον ήμίεφθον! Arm. čakndeł nowhere else appears in the literature of the Golden Age (4), nor in the literature that immediately follows it; nor is it used by the tenth century poet Nerekatsi whose interest in archaic vocabulary was well known (5). However, it does appear in the undated (6) Bark' Galianosi, the so-called

the seed is listed once (Kühn XIX.735), as a substitute for the $\lambda\omega\tau\delta\varsigma$ (alas, it is impossible to guess what now is meant here by *lotus* as a botanical term, though it could be anything from a type of nettle to Italian melilot).

- (3) The Armenian Old Testament was clearly not derived from the Hebrew, a point made by Macler (1927) that has survived every test; and it is also unclear if the Syriac Peshitta played any role; the principal source was the Greek Septuagint. The Hebrew for this curious passage is considerably different from the Septuagint, where we read ktū' mikmar 'as a wild bull in a net'.
- (4) Since Arm. čakndeł is otherwise unknown in the literature of Classical Armenian, not appearing elsewhere till the medieval period, it is possible that čakndeł is wrong here, coming in erroneously as part of a much later redaction.
- (5) Narekatsi would use, in his *Book of Lamentations*, words known only in the earliest period of Armenian literature, consciously reviving lost vocabulary. Here see Greppin 1980.
- (6) There is no sure way to date this bilingual dictionary, but it is the received tradition that it was composed in the sixth century. This conjecture is not without merit since that century produced an enormous amount of translations from the Greeks, works including Plato, Aristotle, Philo the Hebrew and others. Yet it is implied that if there is a Greek-Armenian lexikon to the pharmacological terms of Galen, then Greek originals of Galen's works must have been available. There is, alas, no evidence of this in the Armenian

Galen Dictionary, a list of Greek plant names with Armenian glosses. There we read the entry $\sigma \varepsilon \tilde{v} \tau \lambda o v - \check{c} a k n d e^{i}$ (7). However, in a tenth century agricultural manual, the Girk' vastakoc' often referred to as the Armenian Geoponica, we read that the wild beet root, when ground and mixed with water, is nourishing (vavrı čakn[d]eluk ... cecea, ew ziurn ənd berann xmc'o, ōgtē [1877.218 § 320]). Elsewhere in the Geoponica we read that the beet works as a laxative (Ew albeln avspes lini [1877.218, § 320]) and that it irritates the urine (ew jurn zgozn yordorē [1877.167, § 261]). And the twelfth century writer of fables (8), Mkhitar Gosh, reinforces the notion that the beet root is an uncommonly eaten vegetable. In Fable § 50, a bevy of garden vegetables and fruits gather around and insult the beet, exclaiming "that it is very harsh and irritates the stomach" (et'ē sastik amenewin ē, ew goč'oł orovayni [1854.51]), a view, as we shall see, common among Arab physicians as well. And it is clear that it is the root that is being discussed, rather than the greens, since the other vegetables involved are also root crops: the turnip, carrot and cyclamen. The famous physicians of the same age, Mkhitar Heratsi, notes the beet and tells us in his Treatment of Fevers (1832.117) that beet water, mixed with a variety of other materials (camomile, bran, fenugreek and caltrops wrapped in linen as well as dried figs, baker's borax, sugar and sesame oil), provides a useful irrigant to soften compacted mucus (huknac' kakuł vasn pallami [1832.117]). This perscription harks back, of course, to the comments made in Pliny's Natural History (19.132) and the passages noted in Galen's Simples and in Dioscorides mentioned above. The 15th century Armenian physician, Amirdovlat, an

writings of that time, nor has any Greek version of any Galenic text been found in Armenian areas, and none are known in the great manuscript collections in Yerevan, Venice, Vienna or Jerusalem. It thus remains a mystery to what exact purpose the *Bark' Galianosi* was put.

⁽⁷⁾ According to the Kühn edition of Galen, both the standard Attic τεῦτλον and the Hellenistic σεῦτλον were used.

⁽⁸⁾ At first it would seem odd that a compiler of so serious a work as a law code would produce something so frivilous as a collection of fables. Yet it has successfully been shown that these fables are but metaphors illustrating the laws that Mhhitar Gosh had earlier and more formally compiled.

author of considerable appeal, compiled a gigantic book of Simples (9), a book with 3754 alphabetical entries. There Arm. čakndeł rates less than one line and no pharmaceutical use is included; Amirdovlat notes only that "some say that it is the č'k'ntur" (this would be after the Persian spelling čukundur) "and others say the bazuk" (1926.330, § 1935). It is likely that, by the late medieval period, čakndeł was no longer as actively used.

The term bazuk, a word that normally means 'forearm, arm," seems, in the medieval period, to mean 'beet root' in certain restricted contexts. In the Geoponica, the brief section dealing with the čakndeł has a title: "Concerning the beet, which is the bazuk" (Vasn čakndeł, or ē bazuk [1877.167, § 261]). But though the reference is obscure, and perhaps dialectal, there are at least two other instance of the use of bazuk in this way. A passage in Mkhitar Heratsi (1832.83) shows that bazuk 'forearm' has come to stand for the root of the beet and is a way of distinguishing that part from the greens. There we read of the "forearm of the cakndel (cakndli bazuk), and it is apparent that bazuk is not a new word, homonymic with bazuk 'forearm', but rather simply a new metaphoric use of bazuk 'forearm'. A later recorded use is in Amirdovlat where we read a brief but complete entry: silx or ē bazukn (1926.528, § 3149), identifying the term bazuk with silx, from silq, an Arabic word for 'beet'. It is significant to note that Amirdovlat's main entry for the beet is placed under bazuk; the terms silx (1926.103, § 565) and čakndeł (1926.330, § 1935) merely refer the reader to that word. Amirdovlat is indeed writing ultimately under the spell o the Greeks, as their thought was transfered to the Armenians through the medium of Arabic, for he writes that the banjar is tak' u č'or "hot and dry" (1926.103; § 565), a formula for categorizing the medicinal plants that was

⁽⁹⁾ Though an entirely satisfactory Armenian editon was edited by K. J. Basmadjian, a French-Armenian physician who also wrote on other aspects of Armenian medicine (1925, 1930), no translation has yet been published. A Soviet scholar (Vardanyan 1987) has prepared a commentary on Amirdovlat and his *Angitac' anpēt* ("Useless for the Ignorant"); an English translation with a commentary is underway by John Gueriguian M.D. of the U.S. Food and Drug Administration.

first expressed by Hippocrates (10), considerably developed by Aristotle and further refined by both Galen and Dioscorides (11).

Arm. baniar is a term that stands indeed for the beet root, and the greens of the beet, but the word becomes more complicated since it also can stand for edible greens of any type, or even vegetables in general, not just the beet. This diversity is clear in the Fables of the twelfth century lawgiver. Mkhitar Gosh who notes this difference when the 'beet' (čakndel) is placed as ruler over the other vegetables (čakndeł i veray banjaroc' [1854.51]). Arm. banjar appears twenty-two times in the Bible, and is frequent throughout Armenian literature, from the fifth century to the present where it still maintains the meanings of the beet root specifically, and beet greens as well as other greens without specification, and quite often functions as a general term for vegetables. In numerous passages in the Bible it appears in the phrase banjar xotoy, as a calque on the Septuagint βοτάνη γόρτου (Gen. 1.11, 12; 9.3) 'plant greens'; and as a term for most any vegetables, a garden plant (Arm. partēz banjar = Gk.

- (10) The idea, as expressed by Hippocrates, was that man was composed of hot and cold, wet and dry; when he died, his body decomposed and these elements returned whence they came, hot to hot, etc. $(\tau \partial \theta \epsilon \rho \mu \partial \nu \pi \rho \partial \zeta \tau \partial \theta \epsilon \rho \mu \delta \nu, \kappa \lambda \tau$. [On the Nature of Man L vi 36 17]). This particular treatise was known to the Arabs, having been translated by Ḥunain ibn Isḥâq (9 th. C.) and is available now in an edition by Mattock (1968). There $\tau \partial \theta \epsilon \rho \mu \partial \nu \pi \rho \partial \zeta \tau \partial \theta \epsilon \rho \mu \delta \nu$ is reasonably reproduced as Arabic al-ḥārr alī al-ḥārr (1968.5).
- (11) The theory of hot and cold, wet and dry, was best developed, as an abstract, by Aristotle, an analysis of which can be found in Lloyd 1964. Aristotle, writing in De generatione et corruptione (329b 26ff.) states that τὸ θερμόν is "that which combines with things of the same kind"; τὸ ψυγρόν is "that which brings together and combines things of the same kind"; $\tau \dot{o}$ υνρόν is "that which, being readily delimited is not determined by its own boundry"; and $\tau \partial \xi \eta \rho \delta v$ is "that which, not being readily delimited, is determined by its own boundries". The application to medicine is straightforward and Lloyd notes Hippocrates stating that "pain is caused both by cold and by hot, and both by what is in excess and by what is in default". From there it would logically follow that all one must do, to obtain an agreable stasis, would be to provide the logical opposite for what is in excess or default. Different plants and minerals were able to provide this in varying ways, certain remedies working better for some excesses or defaults than others; it was the skill of the physician to determine what was in default and what was in excess, and to find the appropriate antidote that would restore health.

κῆπος λαχανείας [Deut 11.10]). We also see it used loosely for greens in the phrase banjar vayri (Gen.. 2.5, 3.18, Job 5.25) 'wild beet' (12), which replaces the biblical χλωρόν 'greens'. Uses similar to this are abundant in other fifth century authors: Yeznik used the term as for herbage, vegetables and legumes, and even refers to vegetarians (banjar ewet' ker (1826.286 = 1959.531, § 409). Lazar Parpetsi notes the sweetness of the banjar, and here he must be talking of the root of the beet (13) when he writes of "the honey-flavored sweetness of beets" (zmełraham k'ałc'rut'iwn banjarac'n [1904.9]). In Agathangelos the banjar is little more than a weed, for we read of a "worthless growth of grassy plants" (tarapart ačumn sizaboys banjaroc'n [1909.257]).

In Koriwn's fifth century biography of Mesrop Mashtots we discover that it is agony to eat banjar, reading how Mesrop "subjected himself to all types of spiritual disciplines — solitude, mountain dwelling, hunger, thirst and banjaračašakut'iwn" ('feeding on banjar' [1941.38]). This same point is made by Eusebius of Caesarea, who, in his Church History, notes that the banjar "works a contamination on the eater" (apakanut'iwn gorcer yuteln [1877.689]). Faustos is one of the few authors who refers unequivocably to the root of the beet, mentioning it specifically, armatk' banjaroc' (1883.33), and notes the dreadful state of those who ate only the banjar and water (1883.188). Curiously, Amirdovlat, who mentions that bazuk, čakndeł and silx, does not use anywhere the word banjar.

A final Armenian term is silx (14), taken directly from the

- (12) To help explain the popularity of beet greens, one could note that the still popular swiss chard (actually the white beet) is, in the Linnaean system, *Beta vulgaris* L., while the red beet differs only subspecifically (*B. vulgaris* L. var. *rapa* Asch.). In Arabic the association is more obvious in their names, swiss chard being *barri banjar*, literally 'wild beet', while the cultivated beet is simply *banjar*.
- (13) In its uncultivated state, the beet has a 2% sugar content, but this may be increased as hgh as 15-20% under cultivation.
- (14) Although this term was, and still is, part of the Armenian lexicon, it has always been understood as a foreign term. It seems to be ignored by lexicographers of the Classical language, being absent in the formidable *Nor bargirk' haykazean lezui*. It is further unlisted in Malkhaseants (1944-1945) and Aghayan (1976). The term is pronounced, in Western Armenian, not as Amirdovlat wrote it (silx), but rather as silāek, with the final -k reduced almost to a glottal stop [qilā], reflecting the colloquial Lebanese dialect.

Arabic *silq*, and of rather late appearance. It appears only in Amirdovlat, and is identified as an Arabic word, but none the less a word that would be understood in Armenian (15).

It appears in four entries:

3146. silx čapali (= Ar. silq jabali 'mountain beet' [= Rumex alpinis L., sorrel]).

3147. silx al may (= Ar. silq al-mā' 'water-beet' [Potamogeton natans L., pondweed]).

3148. silx al parri (= Ar. silq al-barrī 'wild beet' [Beta silvestris, wild beet]).

3149. silx. or ē bazuk (Ar. silq 'beet' [Beta vulgaris L. var. rapa Asch.]).

Only one of these entries is more than a single line long; sometimes Amirdovlat makes a reference to heat and moisture, but except for the mountain beet (= sorrel), there is no description; and since silx čapali 'sorrel' is not part of this study of the beet, we will deal with it no further.

In Arabic culture we find a continuation of those ideas which are expressed in Greco-Roman culture, and which are the foundations of Armenian medicine. Alas, there are no well-known sources from which it is easy to discover the way Arabs used the beet for food, but there are numerous pharmaceutical lists, especially those by al-Biruni, Ibn Sina (Avicenna), and Rāzī (Rhazes). There is also a marvelous botanical hand book which lists the beet among a total of 1120 plants. In medieval times the Arabs used the word silq (or salq) as their sole term for the beet. In modern times there came some change, and most contemporary botanical handbooks cite banjar as well, an unusual word since banjar must necessarily have come to Arabic as a rare loan from Armenian (16). Of this we can be sure since

⁽¹⁵⁾ The Arab invasion of Armenia was in 651, and the infiltration of Arabic lexical items started rather rapidly after that. Pharmaceutical vocabulary came in when the Arabs, following Rhazes, began to develop a medical system that was superior to the Greco-Roman system of Galen; we might hazard that this pharmaceutical vocabulary began its infiltration in the tenth or eleventh century. For some specific examples, see Greppin 1986.

⁽¹⁶⁾ The Armenian word was quite active, and went to other languages beside Arabic, for we have Turkish bancar and Greek $\pi a \nu \tau \zeta \dot{a} \rho i$, also with the meaning 'beet'.

the Armenian word banjar (17) is known in that culture from the earliest literature, a good two hundred years before the Arab invasion of Armenian and the commencement of what was to be a rather large Arabic intrusion.

In the *Kitab al-nabāt* by Abū Hanīfa al-Dīnawarī (ninth century) there is, according to the index, no mention of *banjar* though *silq* receives a most brief mention when it is identified as a plant (actually a type of cabbage!) to which the reader is then referred (*rāji' kurunb fī ḥarf al-kāf* [1973.45, § 532]). This indifference to the beet is consistent with what we note in Armenian and Greco-Roman culture.

Rhazes (Abū Bakr Muhammad b. Zakarīyā' al-Rāzī, 865-970). though Persian by birth, wrote his medical works in Arabic. He left us an enormous œuvre that in its current published form in Arabic (Khan 1951-1974), continues for twenty-five volumes. Rhazes examined and wrote on almost all aspects of medicine: diseases of the head, eye, stomach, the urinary system, and so forth; on inherited disorders, and a splendid study of the pharmacopia such as was available in his time. Rhazes became well known in late medieval Europe as well, and his work was soon translated into both Latin and Greek. Rhazes was familiar with the medicinal writings of both Dioscorides and Galen, probably through the translations from Greek, via Syriac, of Hunain ibn Ishâq (18). He was also among the first to see smallpox as a disease separated from measles, and his description of that (Fi al-judarī wa al-hasba) was considered still of interest as late as the mid-nineteenth century when it was translated into English (Greenhill 1847).

- (17) According to the handbook of plant names by Bedevian (1936), banjar beets are the wild beet (Beta silvestris) and the common beet (Beta vulgaris L. var. rapa Asch.); a silq (salq) beet is the white beet or swiss chard (Beta vulgaris L) and the leaf-beet (Beta vulgaris var. folliosa A. Sf.). This covers the standard species and sub-species of beet in Europe and the Middle East. It is curious to note that though silq is present in the pharmaceutical list of Steinschneider (1898.97), banjar is nowhere listed (1897.320 vacat).
- (18) The Arabic versions of Galen and Dioscorides were produced by H unain ibn Ishâq, about 840 AD, though it has been suggested that it was Hunain's nephew, Hubaish ibn al-Ḥasan, who actually did the translating from Greek, but into Syriac, and Hunain went forth from there, into Arabic. Certainly Ḥunain is the better known, and more influential (Bergstrasser 1925).

Rhazes had much to say on the beet, and much of it was original. He first noted what was well known: that there were two varieties, white and black; that it contained niter and that it was successful in the treatment of alopecia (19) (wa yadmudu bihi da' al-tha'lab ba'da hakkah wa al-garūh al-khabītha [1968.63]). He noted, along with Galen (Kühn VI.630), that it opened obstructions of the liver (al-kabid [1968.64]) and that with vinegar it unplugged an obstructed spleen (20), falā agall min an va'kulu ma'a khall wa huwa dawā' balīgh li-man kāna tihālhu 'alīlan min sadad idhā akala 'alà mā wasaftu [1968.65]); further the beet was successful in treating several diseases of the skin and, happily, disposed of fleas. Rhazes followed the Greco-Roman tradition by stating that beet-water, mixed with honey, helped ear-aches (wa lidhālika yunagqī 'usārathumā matà 'ista'ata bihā ma'a al-'asal, wa vanfa'u min waja' al-udhun [1968.63], and continued the older idea that beet juice with honey relieved a stuffed-up nose; and he agreed that the beet was harmful to the intestines (wa valdha'u almi'à wa al-ma'ida [1968.64]). He notes that the beet was 'hot and moist', (al-silg harr ratb [1968.64]), an observation differing from Amirdovlat who said that the beet was 'hot and dry'. This opposing sentiment corresponds to the idea of Avicenna, whom, as we shall see, Amirdovlat probably used as a source. But this 'hot and moist' view of Rhazes is the earliest testimony about the heat and wetness of the beet.

The next great figure to deal with the beet was al-Bīrūnī (Abū Raiḥān Muḥammad ibn Ahmad, 973-1050†). He was not, as was Rhazes, a specialist in medicine: rather he was a polymath, born into a Turkik culture in Central Asia. His work covered, in an Aristotelian manner, astronomy, mathematics, philosophy, history

⁽¹⁹⁾ The word alopecia, the term for a type of hair-loss, is derived from Gk. $\dot{q}\lambda\dot{\omega}\eta\eta\xi$ 'fox', a species in which this disorder was commonly noted. The Arabic term is $d\bar{a}$ ' al-tha'lab, virtually a calque on the Greek term. The beet plays no role in the treatment of alopecia in the Greco-Roman world. There Pseudo-Galen (De remediis parabilibus [Kühn XIV.326]) suggests that alopecia is treatable with pellitory (Anacyclus pyrethrum DC.) and stavesacre.

⁽²⁰⁾ Celsus (De medicina IV.16.2) notes that beets with mustard are most suitable for a swollen spleen (At lien[is]... intumescit; ... acida autem maxime conveniunt; ... betae ex sinapi).

and other studies, including pharmacology. His great work in that field, Kitāb as-Saidana fī al-tibb, is not a particularly original or thorough book, but it is compact and handy to use. In the style of Dioscorides, whose pharmacopia provided linguistic data as well, he traced the term 'beet' as said in various languages. He noted that the Romans say *īrūqūliyūn* (21) (sic) and *tarūtalūn* (probably a corruption of $\tau \varepsilon \tilde{\nu} \tau \lambda o \nu$). He also gives, with somewhat more accuracy, Syriac silaā, but also adds a shailām, which is otherwise unknown to me; for Persian he mentions chukundur (= Per. chugundar) and sarb \bar{a} , the former being known, the latter not. he continues in a Dioscoridac vein, quoting him directly, and with acknowledgement, that the black feet is astringent, though the white has many uses. Neither, though, is good for the digestion, but the juice of them both, mixed with honev. clears the head, and helps ear aches (wa 'usārathumā idhā su'it a bihā bi-mā' al-'asal tunaggī al-ra's wa tanfa'u min waja' aludhun, [1973.228]), a view stated earlier by the Greeks and the Romans, and by Rhazes. And, as Oribasius partially noted, it helps scalp disorders, such as dandruff and dryness (wa tabīkh waraq al-silq wa aslhu idha ghusil bī-hi al-ra's qala'a al-dabār wa nagiya al-nukhāla [1973.228]. There is also some assistance for other diseases of the scalp, for alopecia and pityriasis, a disease that brings about flaking of the skin (šagāg sickness [1973.228]).

So said al-Bīrūnī on the beet. Avicenna (Abū 'Ali al-Ḥusain ibn 'Abdallāh ībn Sīnā), a man of Tajik origin and born in Bukhara (980-1037), provided a description of the beet that is more thorough than that of al-Bīrūnī, though less complete than the observations of Rhazes. We find an abundance of ideas, a few of which are apparently original developments, independent of the Greco-Roman tradition and Rhazes; others continue earlier the older tradition. Conventionally, he says that the beet is bad for the digestion because of the excess of niter (niṭrunīyā

⁽²¹⁾ I cannot imagine what al-Bīrūnī was thinking of when he recorded $\bar{r}r\bar{u}q\bar{u}liy\bar{u}n$. The sizable work on Latin plant names, by Jacques André (1956) has nothing that would correspond to it. So often in transliterating from one script to the other, Greek to Arabic, Latin to Syriac, etc., the original term would be greatly distorted after only a few copyings. The Armenian Bark' Galianosi contains Greek words in Armenian script that are so distant from the original that they simply cannot be identified.

[1877.378]), a fact stated by earlier pharmacologist; he notes, as did Rhazes, that beet-juice will remove fleas (barāghīth [1877.387]) and heals alopecia (tanfa'u 'usārathu wa tabīkh waraqhu min shiqaq al-bard wa yanafu min da' al-tha'lab [1877.387]). Mixed with honey it cleans the ears and the nose (bi-l-'asal ... yamfa'u qurūḥ al-anf mā'hu fātiran yuqattiru fī aludhun fa-vusakkinu al-waja' [1877.388]). Harking back to Cicero's comment that it aids diarrhea, Avicenna noted that, mixed with lentils ('adas [1877.388]), it aids the stomach. Avicenna differs with Rhazes, saying that the beet is "hot (and) dry" (harr (wa) yābis [1877.387]), a view continued by Amirdovlat. I believe Avicenna was the only Arab physician to state specifically, along with Pliny and Galen, that although the beet was generally harmful to the digestion, when cooked with lentils, it was actually very helpful to the stomach. And, along with Rhazes, Avicenna notes that beet juice can rid one of fleas.

We might mention here Serapion Junior (Ibn Sarābiyūn), an Arabic scholar on medicine (11th century) whose writing now exists only in a Latin translation. Serapion is not particularly original, and he makes clear that he is quoting from Greco-Roman sources. He first notes Galen; then Dioscorides, and then other less pertinent sources, such as the Liber de agricultura. which is perhaps the Geoponica and though Serapion claims to be confining himself to the ancient Greco-Roman sources, he does present material that is outside these writings. In his entry for Dioscorides, he notes that a concoction from the beet root will clean the head (& qñ ex decoctione blete & radicis eius abluitur caput [1550. section CXLVIII]), a view actually confined to the Arab physicians. Yet we know also that Serapion preceded Rhazes (Rhazes mentions Serapion in his al-Hāwī [Sezgin 1970.229]), and so Serapion must have got his material on the cleansing of the head from a medieval tradition that preceded Rhazes.

Examining all the Arabic references to the beet, we find few ideas expressed that are not to be found in the Greco-Roman tradition. The advantage to the Arabic studies is that they hold more information than any one of the Greco-Roman sources. Further, they are handier than Galen to use because Galen scattered his observations on the beet widely over a half dozen

different books. Both Rhazes and Avicenna managed to get a good sized compilation all in one area of their books on Simples. That this would be an improvement on the work of Galen is obvious. We can also observe, but only subjectively, that the writing of the Arab physicians was somehow more subtle, more finely tuned than the work of Galen and Dioscorides. The Arabs are much more aware of the healing power of beet juice for treating diseases of the scalp (it is Pliny and to a lesser extent Oribasius, in the Greco-Roman system, who noted that beet juice removed dandruff), but scalp disorders may have been more of a problem in the warmer Arab lands than in the more temperate central Mediterranean area. It is also surprising that Avicenna and Rhazes were the first to offer opinions on the heat and moistness of the beet, and though they differ on moistness (Rhazes stated it was moist but Avicenna said dry) they fill a significant gap in the medical science of that day. Thus it can easily be said that the Arabic views of the beet were at least a moderate advance over the Greco-Roman system. The Arabs continued almost all of the earlier views of Galen, Pliny and others, and they make clear, in the process, that the beet was surely an item of little importance to the Ancients, both for use in pharmaceuticals, and most surely for use at the table. To this latter, some of our young offspring would most surely agree.

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